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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WORK STATUS, GENDER, FAMILY ROLES, AND SELF-ESTEEM

BY

LYNN M. KUSTRA

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

OF MASTER OF SCIENCE

IN

FAMILY STUDIES

FACULTY OF HOME ECONOMICS

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

(Fall, 1986)

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Date: April 28, 1986

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my children, Bryce and Rhys, that it may inspire them to pursue their dreams.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to assess the relationship between employment status and the psychological well-being of men and women. The majority of research in the area of unemployment has focused upon the psychological effects which have occurred among men. Research findings indicate that men who lose their jobs may experience lowered self-esteem, loss of self-confidence, loss of morale, and depression. Much less is known about the effects of unemployment upon the psychological well-being of women.

Cohn's (1978) theoretical model of the effect of employment status change on self-attitudes was used as the conceptual model for this research study. Cohn (1978) hypothesized that the loss of a work role would cause changes to an individual's definition of his or her employment status. This would, in turn, cause changes to one's self-esteem.

Within Cohn's framework, several problems were investigated. These included differences in self-esteem between employed and unemployed workers, and differences in self-esteem between male and female workers who varied by employment status. In addition, differences in self-esteem for individuals who varied by the availability of the alternative role of parent were examined. Employed and underemployed teachers participated in this study.

The underemployed teachers had significantly lower scores on the social and family subscales than the employed teachers. These scores, however, did not affect their global self-esteem scores. No significant differences were found in the global mean self-esteem scores for teachers

who varied by employment status or gender. There was also no significant interaction effect. No significant differences were found in the global mean self-esteem scores for teachers who varied by the availability of the role of parent. The findings of this study suggest that the overall self-esteem of some teachers may not be affected by the loss of work, whereas certain aspects of self-esteem may be affected.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER		PAGE
I.	INTRODUCTION	1
	Statement of the Problem	9
II.	CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	10
III.	LITERATURE REVIEW	17
	Relationship Between Work Status and Self-Esteem	17
	Effects of Unemployment upon Self-Esteem	18
	Work Commitment and Unemployment	21
	Female Unemployment	21
	Male and Female Gender Roles	22
	The Availability of Alternative Roles	30
	Summary	36
	Hypotheses	37
IV.	RESEARCH METHODS	39
	Sample	39
	Descriptive Data for Married Employed and Underemployed Groups	39
	Financial Data for Married Employed and Underemployed Groups	40
	Employment Data for Married Employed and Underemployed Groups	40
	Role Attitudes for Married Employed and Underemployed Groups	46
	Descriptive Data for Single and Married Female Groups	46

Employment Data for Single and
Married Female Groups 47
Summary 48
Materials 49
Letters of Introduction 49
Instruction Sheet and Demographic
Questionnaire 49
Self-Esteem Instrument 50
Procedure 51
Design 52
V. RESULTS 53
Statistical Analyses 53
VI. DISCUSSION 57
VII. IMPLICATIONS 65

REFERENCES 67
APPENDIX A. LETTER OF INTRODUCTION TO SCHOOL PRINCIPALS 73
APPENDIX B. LETTER OF INTRODUCTION TO EMPLOYED TEACHERS 76
APPENDIX C. LETTER OF INTRODUCTION TO UNEMPLOYED TEACHERS 78
APPENDIX D. DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE 80
APPENDIX E. LETTER OF THANK-YOU TO PRINCIPALS 87
APPENDIX F. LETTER OF THANK-YOU TO TEACHERS 89
APPENDIX G. CELL MEANS AND ANOVA TABLES 91

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Description	Page
1	Distribution of Males and Females With Parent Role	41
2	Descriptive Data for Study Sample	42
3	Financial Distribution for Study Sample	43
4	Financial Distribution for Study Sample	44
5	Occupational Data for Study Sample	45

CHAPTER I

Introduction

Despite optimism that the recession which began in the mid-1970's would be a short-lived phenomenon, large numbers of qualified and well-educated Canadians continue to experience the loss of work today. In February, 1986 the unemployment rate in Canada was 9.8%, which is one of the highest rates since the Great Depression of the 1930's (Statistics Canada, 1985b). This figure represented approximately 717,000 Canadian men and 521,000 Canadian women, aged 15 years and over, who were without employment.

In the past, research upon those who have experienced the loss of work and who have subsequently become unemployed or underemployed has focused upon the psychological consequences that have occurred among men. The relationship between unemployment or underemployment and the psychological well-being of women is not clear. The purpose of this study was to assess the relationship between employment status and the psychological well-being of both men and women. For this study, self-esteem was selected as the measure of psychological well-being. Self-esteem is defined as the degree to which an individual feels that he or she is a person of worth (Coopersmith, 1967). This is the result of one's own evaluation of one's abilities and successes within social roles.

Unemployment affects individuals at all levels of the work force. In recent years, individuals in managerial as well as blue-collar occupations have experienced the loss of work. Many of these individuals remain unemployed because they are unable to find new jobs. Others accept low-paying jobs for which they may be overqualified or

overeducated thus becoming underemployed workers.

Little is known about underemployed workers, particularly those who are professionals. While it is possible to gain approximate numbers for those individuals who are unemployed, comparable underemployment statistics are not available. This is primarily because monthly employment figures only differentiate between employed workers and unemployed workers. Professionals, for example, who must accept positions in occupations such as sales are considered employed and are included in monthly employment figures. In addition, with the exception of a few recent studies (Burris, 1983; Derber, 1978; Kaufman, 1982), little research on the topic of underemployment has been done.

It is important to distinguish between the two terms, unemployment and underemployment. Marsden (1977) defined unemployment in the following way:

> Unemployment itself is defined as a condition of being without paid work and actively looking for work, that is, being available for work if anything suitable were found. Among the unemployed are also included people on lay-off and those with a job to start in the near future. The unemployed are distinguished from two other groups: those in the paid labour force and those neither in the labour force nor seeking work in the paid labour force. (p. 29)

Underemployment is defined as the state of having a paid work position which wastes or underutilizes an individual's abilities, knowledge, or skills (Derber, 1978; Kaufman, 1982). Both unemployment and underemployment are frequently the result of job loss. Job loss is defined as the premature and involuntary cessation of work (Hayes &

Nutman, 1981). The majority of research literature focuses upon the psychological effects which accompany job loss, however, the term unemployment is used more frequently in the literature than is the term job loss. This is because individuals who have involuntarily experienced the loss of their jobs and who are available for a paid work position are considered unemployed.

Research upon the effects of male unemployment dates back to the late 1930's when unemployment was considered to be the greatest problem that Canada faced (Gilman & Sinclair, 1935). Researchers found that unemployment not only had profound economic consequences upon men and their families (Bakke, 1940; Cavan & Ranck, 1938), but also had serious psychological effects (Eisenberg & Lazarsfeld, 1938; Ginsburg, 1942; Jahoda, 1979; Zawadzki & Lazarsfeld, 1935). Men were found to experience feelings of inferiority, loss of self-confidence, and loss of morale (Eisenberg & Lazarsfeld, 1938).

Recent research studies resulting from the recession of the 1970's again focused primarily upon male unemployment. Similar to the research findings of the 1930's, unemployment was found to have serious effects upon the psychological well-being of men (Braginsky & Braginsky, 1975; Hepworth, 1980; Powell & Driscoll, 1973; Warr, 1978). The self-esteem of men experiencing the loss of their jobs and later reemployment has been found to be lower than for those who have never experienced the loss of work (Braginsky & Braginsky, 1975). Warr and Parry (1982) suggested that the low psychological well-being which occurs among men experiencing the loss of work may be a result of reduced opportunities for task achievement, increased financial hardship, unsuccessful job-seeking activities, lack of daily structure, lack of a sense of purpose, and

reduced contact with the social network that work provides.

In addition to lowered psychological well-being, men who experience the loss of work have been found to also experience increased physical health problems (Gore, 1978; Kasl & Cobb, 1970; Kasl, Gore, & Cobb, 1975). For example, higher blood pressure levels have been found in men who anticipated the loss of work and who experienced subsequent unemployment than among men who had not anticipated the loss of work and who remained employed (Kasl et al., 1975). Gore (1978) found an increase in levels of cholesterol and an increase in the number of self-reported illnesses among men who experienced the loss of work compared to men who did not experience the loss of work. In a longitudinal study of social stress indicators between the years 1940 to 1973, Brenner (1977) linked increases in deaths related to strokes, heart disease, and kidney disease to increases in unemployment rates in the United States.

It is evident that the physical and psychological well-being of men are negatively related to the loss of work and subsequent unemployment. Much less is known, however, about the effects of unemployment upon the physical and psychological well-being of women. This is partly because most of the research has focused upon the effects of unemployment upon men. As well, most of the research studies in the area of female unemployment have failed to include variables such as stages of the family life cycle and socioeconomic status in their analysis of the relationship (Warr & Parry, 1982). Both of these variables have been found to be important factors in female labour force participation (Waite, 1980).

The early research of the 1930's and 1940's did not examine female unemployment. At that time, women comprised only a small percentage

(21.9%) of the labour force and the typical female worker before 1940 was young, single, and childless (Blau, 1978). Most women who were employed during that time expected their working lives to be relatively short because they assumed that they would resign from their position of employment at the time of marriage (Iglehart, 1979; Tentler, 1976). The majority of women were, therefore, not dependent upon their own earnings for survival, but were economically dependent upon fathers, brothers and husbands (Tentler, 1976). For those women who did become unemployed during the 1930's, it was believed that:

> It is easier for a woman to accept an inferior position than it is for a man; it is less of a blow to her prestige, because in our culture man's status is considered to be superior to that of woman's, and it is considered man's duty to have a job. This would suggest that men suffer more severely from unemployment and are more apt to become broken or distressed than women. (Eisenberg & Lazarsfeld, 1938, p. 375).

The role of women changed in the 1940's. World War II had a tremendous impact upon female working patterns. With a shortage of manpower, and the majority of single women already working, married women were encouraged to enter the labour force (Hattaway, 1976; Iglehart, 1979). Women from all backgrounds became employed in paid positions outside the home (Hesse, 1979). Almost 1 million women in Canada entered the labour market during the war years and assumed different kinds of work (Pierson, 1983). At the end of the war, women were encouraged to reassume the traditional roles of wife and mother (Hesse, 1979; Iglehart, 1979). Despite this pressure, many women did not return to their traditional roles, even though they frequently lost their positions in

heavy industry to men (Hess, 1979). Instead, they found positions of employment in traditionally female sectors of the labour market, such as the service industry (Hess, 1979).

In the years since World War II, increasing numbers of women have displayed an interest in pursuing a work role outside the home and have entered the work force. In 1981, more than one-half of all women aged 15 years and over were in a paid position or seeking one (Statistics Canada, 1984). By late 1984, the number of Canadian women entering the work force outnumbered that of men (Smith, 1984). Not only were more women entering the labour force, but also women from varying backgrounds. For example, large increases have occurred since 1975 in the numbers of women entering the work force who also have young children. The percentage of women entering the work force who had children under three years of age increased from 31.2% in 1975 to 51.5% in 1984 (Statistics Canada, 1985a). The percentage of women entering the work force who had children aged three to five years increased from 40.0% in 1975 to 56.9% in 1984 (Statistics Canada, 1985a).

Despite increasing numbers of women entering the labour force, including those with young children, an important difference exists in the societal expectations toward the work roles of men and women. For men, the role of work has traditionally been a socially valued role. The process of socialization has continued to reinforce the perception that the primary role of a man is that of family worker (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1975). As workers, men are expected to provide for themselves and for their families and to remain active in the labour force. Parsons (1977), in developing his theory of gender role differentiation, hypothesized that the primary responsibility of familial economic support rested upon

the one adult male member of the nuclear family. Furthermore, he stated that it would be an exceptional normal adult male who could occupy a respected place in our society without having a regular job (Parsons, 1977). Therefore, men are expected to hold and maintain a paid work position outside of the home. Furthermore, as Cavan (1959) suggested, unless an unemployed man can work out some sort of role for himself within the home he virtually has no role to play. Work is not only an economic necessity for the vast majority of men (Kelvin, 1981), it is also the expected role.

Although the traditional roles of women, those of wife and mother, have changed over the years and now include the role of paid worker, most women are expected to continue to fulfill the roles of wife and mother despite an interest in employment (Armstrong & Armstrong, 1978). With the roles of wife and mother continuing to be dominant, women are not expected to maintain employment to the same extent that men are. Consequently, many women who are not in the work force cannot be classified as unemployed due to their fulfillment of the wife/mother roles. Warr and Parry (1982) suggested that women who do not hold a job outside the home are not all unemployed in the sense that most men without a job are considered to be unemployed. This is due to differing expectations for men and women. Arnott (1972) suggested that women have more choice than men regarding whether they will work, when they will work, and to what extent they will become involved in their work roles. Essentially, then, women may be categorized as being employed, unemployed, or not in the work force, while men are considered employed or unemployed (Marsden, 1977).

The loss of work and subsequent unemployment may, therefore, have

different effects upon the self-esteem of men and women. These effects may be influenced by differences which may exist among men and women in terms of the availability of socially valued alternative roles. For example, the role of mother may be a socially valued alternative role for women who experience the loss of work. If the role of mother is perceived to be valued by society, women having this role available to them may have an alternative role which contributes positively to their self-esteem. A comparable alternative role may not be available to men. The most socially valued role for men is that of paid worker. While the role of father is considered important, it may not be considered a socially valued alternative role in the sense that the role of mother may be for women. Men who lose their jobs may, therefore, not have an alternative role which contributes positively to their self-esteem. It appears that women have a wider variety of alternative roles available to them than do men. This difference in the availability of alternative roles for men and women may influence the relationship between the loss of work and male and female self-esteem. For the purpose of this study, the availability of a socially valued alternative role was defined as being a parent to one or more preschool children.

In summary, research in the area of unemployment indicates that the loss of work may have negative effects upon an individual's self-esteem. These effects have primarily been found for male workers. The relationship between the loss of work and female self-esteem remains unclear. It seems evident that this relationship must be studied within the context of the availability of socially valued alternative roles. The availability of a socially valued alternative role may have an influence upon the relationship between job loss and an individual's

self-esteem.

Statement of the Problem

This research addressed the following problem: What is the relationship between work status, gender, family roles, and one's self-esteem? Within this problem, the following subproblems were investigated:

1. What is the difference in the mean score of self-esteem between employed and unemployed workers?
2. What is the difference in the mean score of self-esteem between male and female workers?
3. What is the difference in the mean score of self-esteem between male and female workers who have experienced the loss of work and subsequent unemployment?
4. What is the difference in the mean score of self-esteem between employed female workers and female workers who have experienced the loss of work and subsequent unemployment?
5. For those female workers who have experienced the loss of work and subsequent unemployment, what is the difference in the mean score of self-esteem between those who have the alternative role of mother available to them and those who do not?
6. What is the difference in the mean score of self-esteem between male and female workers who have experienced the loss of work and subsequent unemployment and who also assume the role of parent?

CHAPTER II

Conceptual Framework

In order to examine the relationships between employment status and male and female self-esteem, Cohn's (1978) theoretical model of the effect of employment status change on self-attitudes was used. The model attempts to explain changes which might occur to one's subjective judgment of self-worth, or self-esteem, as a result of external changes to one's environment, such as the loss of work. It does this within symbolic interaction theory.

Since Cohn's (1978) model focuses upon changes which may occur to one's self-esteem as the result of the loss of work, it is important to define what is meant by the term self-esteem. Although Coopersmith (1967) was not a symbolic interactionist, he defined self-esteem as "the evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself: It expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval and indicates the extent to which the individual believes himself to be capable, significant, successful, and worthy" (p. 4). Similarly, Beane and Lipka (1980) defined self-esteem as the evaluative assessment that an individual makes towards one's roles and one's performance within those roles. Mossman and Ziller (1968) suggested that self-esteem is the individual's perception of his or her relative worth. All of these definitions share the concept of self-worth. For the purpose of this research study, self-esteem is defined as the extent to which an individual feels he or she is a person of worth. This is the result of one's own evaluation of one's abilities and successes within social roles.

It is important to distinguish between the terms of self-concept and self-esteem. Self-concept has been defined as the descriptive perception that one holds toward oneself (Beane & Lipka, 1980). This perception includes one's concepts of various personal attributes and roles. Self-concept is the personal image that one has of oneself, while self-esteem is an evaluation of that image. Self-esteem was the interest of this study.

Researchers agree that self-esteem involves the process of personal evaluation (Battle, 1981; Bean & Lipka, 1980; Burns, 1979; Coopersmith, 1967, 1981; Ziller, Hagey, Smith, & Long, 1969). This evaluation occurs within the context of one's environment, as individuals fulfill the requirements of their various roles and interact with others within their environment. Throughout this process of interaction, individuals constantly receive messages about themselves from other individuals. If an individual interprets these messages to be consistently positive, one's positive perception of self will be reinforced. If an individual with a positive perception of self interprets the messages received from others to be negative, the individual may feel some pressure to change (Gergen, 1971), or may develop negative perceptions about himself or herself. Individuals with a negative perception of self may have their perceptions reinforced. The messages received from others, therefore, influence the way in which individuals perceive, define, and redefine themselves. These perceptions and definitions form an individual's self-esteem.

Self-esteem is considered to be on a continuum ranging from positive to negative. Coopersmith (1967) hypothesized that positive self-esteem was related to feelings of self-worth, self-acceptance, self-respect and

pride, while negative self-esteem was related to feelings of inadequacy, self-hatred, and a lack of assertiveness. Maximization of positive self-esteem has been described as being integral to emotional well- being (Lauer & Handel, 1977).

Coopersmith (1967) contended that, although temporary changes to one's self-esteem might occur as the result of changes in one's environment, self-esteem was a constant and enduring component of one's self-concept. In contrast, symbolic interactionists argue that self-esteem is not permanent, but is dependent upon the successes and failures which are experienced throughout life (Lauer & Handel, 1977). According to symbolic interaction theory, how an individual interprets changes which occur within his or her environment will influence the degree and direction of change which occur to his or her perception of self-worth. One's interpretation may result in changes to one's self-esteem. This viewpoint serves as the framework for this study.

The focus of this study, i.e. the loss of work and subsequent unemployment, is an example of a change in one's environment which may alter personal self-esteem. Cohn's (1978) model is based upon the assumption that an individual's interpretation of the loss of work will determine whether or not there is a change in his or her personal assessment of self-worth. This interpretation is based upon variables such as the importance of the role of work in the individual's global definition of self and the evaluation that the individual makes regarding the perceived change in self-concept as a result of the loss of the work role.

Cohn's model has been described in mathematical terms. A summary of this follows. First, it is assumed that a change in employment status is

accurately perceived by the individual when job loss occurs. The perceived loss of employment status then causes a change within the employment status component of the individual's self-concept, which in turn produces a change in the individual's evaluation of his or her total self-concept. This change can alter the individual's feelings of worth, or self-esteem. In other words, the perceived loss of employment status which accompanies the loss of work may alter the way an individual defines himself or herself. This change in self-definition may result in a change in self-esteem. A change in self-esteem may change one's behavior which, in turn, influences the process of interaction between the individual and others within his or her environment. These changes in social role performance may then reinforce changes to the individual's self-esteem.

Lastly, according to this model, the attribution of cause for the employment status change which occurs through the loss of work will influence the individual's evaluation of his or her self-concept. This is dependent upon whether or not the individual perceives the change in employment status to be a result of his or her own actions, internally caused, or the result of some external cause. If an individual perceives the loss of work to be caused by an external factor, such as a plant closing, it is less likely that his or her self-attitudes will be affected. However, if the loss of work is thought to be internally caused, e.g. due to poor job performance, the individual's feelings of worth are likely to be affected.

Cohn (1978) further suggested that the importance of employment status change upon an individual's self-esteem could be analyzed by examining group perceptions toward work as a major role. Differences may

occur among various groups of society as a result of different group perceptions regarding the societal expectations for the members of various groups to maintain some sort of employment status. These expectations are learned and internalized as the result of membership within various groups. For example, the societal expectations regarding the maintenance of employment status have traditionally differed for males and females. Because of these differing societal expectations, men and women may perceive the role of work differently. Cohn (1978) argued that men are socialized to expect to fulfill the role of work, and women are socialized to expect to fulfill the traditional roles of wife and mother with the role of work being secondary. It is as a result of the process of socialization that these societal expectations are learned and incorporated into one's own system of values. Differential socialization may, therefore, cause men and women to perceive the role of work differently.

Men and women may also define the loss of a work role differently as the result of particular perceptions regarding the availability of socially valued alternative roles. According to this model, an individual who perceives the availability of a socially valued alternative role will be affected to a lesser degree by the loss of work than an individual who does not perceive the availability of a socially valued alternative role. This is because an individual's self-esteem depends upon more than one self-concept component. In this case, employment status is only one component of an individual's global self-concept. For example, the role of full-time mother is generally perceived to be a meaningful and socially valued alternative role for women. Men, however, lack a socially valued alternative role when the

loss of work occurs. This is because the role of full-time father is not a socially valued source of gratification.

According to this model, then, the loss of work and subsequent unemployment may affect the self-esteem of men and women differently. This may partially be the result of the differing societal expectations for men and women for employment status maintenance. These expectations are learned and incorporated into an individual's total self-concept. Furthermore, if the role of work is perceived to be primary to the individual's sense of self and no other role is perceived to be a socially valued alternative, then more changes in the evaluation of the total self-concept may occur than if other roles are available. This may result in changes to one's self-esteem.

In summary, the effect of the loss of work upon an individual's self-esteem may be dependent upon the interpretation that an individual makes with regard to the change in employment status. This interpretation will be influenced by the perceptions that an individual holds toward the importance of a work role within his or her definition of self. This perception will differ for various groups of society as the societal expectations for employment status maintenance vary. These expectations are learned and incorporated into an individual's value system as the result of socialization and membership within a specific group. When the loss of work occurs, a corresponding change occurs in the definition of oneself. An individual may no longer be able to define oneself in terms of a work role. Although the role of work is only one component of an individual's total self-concept, the importance of this role may differ for men and women as the result of different societal expectations for employment status maintenance. In addition, men and

women differ in terms of the perceived availability of socially valued alternative roles. The loss of a work role may, therefore, have different effects upon the self-esteem of men and women.

CHAPTER III

Literature Review

In order to compare the relationships between employment status and male and female self-esteem, it is necessary to examine: (a) the relationship between work and self-esteem, and the effect of the loss of work and subsequent unemployment upon an individual's psychological well-being; (b) the process of socialization and its effect upon male and female gender roles, and thus the importance of the work role to each gender; and (c) the availability of roles which may be alternatives to the role of work.

Relationship Between Work Status and Self-Esteem

For many men and women, work has become a gauge with which to assess their personal worth and competence in comparison to others. Researchers agree that two main functions of work are identity maintenance and enhancement of self-esteem (Clarke, 1982; Hayes & Nutman, 1981; Jahoda, 1981; Kelvin, 1981). Identity maintenance and enhancement of self-esteem are achieved as the individual continues to participate in a specific work role which eventually becomes a personal component of his or her larger role set. Success within the work role maintains the benefits that work provides. These include income, physical or mental activity, variety, time structure, social contacts, personal identity and status (Jahoda, 1979; Warr, 1982; Warr, 1984b). Receipt of these benefits reinforces an individual's perceptions of self-worth.

Loss of the work role removes both the tangible and intangible rewards which it provides (Clarke, 1982). It also removes a role which serves as a means for others to judge the abilities of the individual. Kelvin (1981) pointed out that what a person does to earn a living is

frequently asked when individuals meet for the first time. Those who have lost work have lost a role which provides status (Hayes & Nutman, 1981). Lack of this role often results in feelings of worthlessness (CMHA, 1983; Hill, 1978) and loss of self-esteem (Hayes & Nutman, 1981).

Effects of Unemployment upon Self-Esteem.

Research upon the effects of unemployment dates back to the 1930's. More recent research resulted from the recession of the 1970's. Few of the research studies have directly investigated the effect of unemployment upon an individual's self-esteem. Most of the studies have been descriptive in nature and have focused upon changes which occur to an individual's psychological well-being. The results indicate that individuals may experience feelings of inferiority, loss of self-confidence, and loss of morale (Eisenberg & Lazarsfeld, 1938; Hill, 1978). Researchers have found that individuals experiencing the loss of work often become depressed and develop a sense of powerlessness (Krahn, Lowe, & Tanner, 1984; Powell & Driscoll, 1973). In addition, studies have revealed that individuals may experience increased levels of stress, anxiety and worry (Fineman, 1979; Warr, 1978). These findings indicate that the loss of work generally has an overall negative effect upon an individual's psychological well-being.

The few studies which have focused upon self-esteem indicate that this component of an individual's psychological well-being may also be negatively affected by the loss of work (Braginsky & Braginsky, 1975; Powell & Driscoll, 1973; Stokes & Cochrane, 1984). For example, Stokes and Cochrane (1984) administered a Satisfaction With Life Questionnaire to equal groups of employed and unemployed men and women and found that the unemployed group had significantly lower levels of self-esteem. The

unemployed group also had significantly higher levels of physical and psychological symptoms, significantly higher levels of hostility, and were significantly more dissatisfied with the way they were accepted by others. In addition, the unemployed were more critical of others, were more likely to hold paranoid attitudes, and were more likely to experience feelings of guilt.

Braginsky and Braginsky (1975) interviewed 46 unemployed men ranging in age from 23 to 59 years. A questionnaire was used to determine three different perceptions, the individual's perception of society's judgment of him, the individual's perception of himself, and the individual's perception of others. Attitudes of the men towards themselves were found to be negative. Fifty percent of the unemployed men felt that they were doing nothing socially useful while only 20% of the employed group felt this way. Over time, 64% of the unemployed group thought that they were of no value to their families. In further research, Braginsky and Braginsky (1975) found that sudden job loss left a long-lasting mark upon their subjects' feelings of self-esteem. Those who regained their jobs also regained their self-esteem but not to the level of the control group that had not experienced the loss of work.

In a study of 75 unemployed male scientists and engineers, Powell and Driscoll (1973) also found that the attitudes of the men towards themselves progressively deteriorated. The interview data revealed four typical stages of behavior. After an initial period of relaxation, the men of their survey passed through a stage of concerted job seeking which eventually deteriorated to a stage of self-doubt and pessimism. During this stage, the men became increasingly self-critical and anxious. After an average of six weeks of vacillation, the men became passive and

cynical about the future search for work. In the last stage, job seeking efforts and social activities became significantly reduced.

Other researchers have found similar negative consequences relating to the loss of work. Hepworth (1980) found a negative correlation between the length of unemployment and subjective well-being. Ninety-two unemployed men between the ages of 19 and 63 years were asked to complete a demographic questionnaire, General Health Questionnaire, and a Present Life Satisfaction scale. The unemployed men in this sample had significantly poorer mental health and poorer subjective well-being than the employed men. The longer the men remained unemployed, the less able they were to remain active on a day-to-day basis.

In a recent study of 228 employed and 39 unemployed men and women, Krahn et al. (1984) found significant differences between the two groups on six measures of psychological distress. The unemployed group in this sample reported feeling more depressed and lonelier than the employed group. In addition, the unemployed group scored significantly higher in their feelings that other people were unfriendly, in their feelings that their lives had been a failure, in the inability to feel happy, and in less verbal interaction with others. Krahn et al. (1984) concluded that depression is a major outcome of job loss. Researchers have found that depression is closely associated with low self-esteem (Battle, 1978; Battle, 1980; Coopersmith, 1967).

It is apparent, therefore, that the loss of work may be related to a variety of negative psychological consequences. Individuals have been found to experience symptoms such as lowered self-esteem, depression, a sense of powerlessness, and loss of morale. Negative perceptions toward one's value as a family member and towards one's social relationships may

also be related to the loss of work. Warr (1984a), who has done extensive research on the effects of unemployment upon British workers, argued that the causal relationship between unemployment and psychological distress symptoms is clear. The majority of research studies have focused upon the psychological effects of unemployment upon men. Much less is known about the impact of unemployment upon female workers.

Work Commitment and Unemployment.

The desire to work and the degree to which an individual perceives work to be a central role has a relationship to one's self-esteem. The more important one's job is to an individual, the greater the negative effect of job loss upon self-esteem. Fineman (1979) interviewed 23 unemployed male managers and 2 unemployed female managers and found that prior high commitment to the job and a previous sincere belief in personal competence in the job precipitated threats to one's self-esteem. In an unpublished study of 399 unemployed men and in a further study of 954 unemployed men (also unpublished), Warr (1984b) found significantly lower psychological well-being among unemployed individuals who were committed to the work role. Hill (1978) interviewed unemployed male and female workers and also found that the effect of job loss was related to the "quality of the relationship which an individual makes with his work and on how far he has established a satisfactory occupational identity through it" (p. 119). Thus, the greater the investment in one's work, the worse the effect of job loss upon one's self-esteem.

Female Unemployment.

The event of job loss and its subsequent psychological effects have not been systematically researched with regard to female workers despite

the fact that women comprise over 40% of the labour force (Statistics Canada, 1985c). Yet in times of economic instability, women also experience the loss of work. When this occurs women are more likely than men to become discouraged with the job search and either drop out of the labour force or accept lower positions (Moen, 1979, 1980). Data from the Michigan Panel Study of Income Dynamics for the year 1975 revealed that 75% of unemployed men between the ages of 25 and 29 years became reemployed while only 40% of unemployed women of the same age found new work (Moen, 1980). Moen (1980) suggested that family responsibilities and a lack of mobility often place restrictions upon the job-seeking activity of unemployed women, particularly family heads.

Many of the research studies in the area of unemployment have focused upon men in general, and those which have included women in the research sample have not tested for differences in the effects of unemployment upon men and women. Consequently, the relationship between the loss of work and female self-esteem remains unclear. In order to analyze this relationship, it is important to examine differences in male and female gender roles, and attitudes towards the role of work.

Male and Female Gender Roles

From the moment of birth, male and female children begin the process of socialization which will prepare them to participate in society within specified roles. These roles are learned as the result of the interaction which occurs between children and individuals in their environment. According to Romer (1981), the interaction which occurs between children and parents, or between children and other individuals, is related to the gender of the child. In other words, the parent-child interaction is influenced by the gender of the child.

Studies have shown that parents do treat male and female children differently beginning within the first twenty-four hours of birth. Rubin, Provanzano, and Luria (1976) interviewed 30 pairs of parents within twenty-four hours of the birth of their first child and found that, despite similarities in birth weight and size, female infants were described by both parents to be significantly softer, finer featured, smaller, and more inattentive than male infants. From the findings of this study, Rubin et al. (1976) suggested that sex-typing and sex-role socialization appear to begin at the time of birth.

Other studies indicate that gender labels continue to influence the ways in which adults interact with infant children. Seavey, Katz, and Zalk (1975) studied patterns of interaction between 42 nonparent adults and one 3-month-old female infant. Subjects were either told that the child was a boy, or a girl, or they were given no information about the child's gender at all. The behavior of the adult toward the infant was then observed and recorded at 15-second intervals for a period of 3 minutes. Significant differences were found in both toy usage and physical contact as a result of differences in the perceived gender of the child. When the child was introduced to the adult as a female, both the male and female subjects used the feminine toy, a doll, more frequently in their interaction with the child than when the gender of the child was left unspecified or when the child was introduced as a male infant. When the gender of the child was left unspecified, the male adult subjects more frequently chose the neutral toy, a plastic teething ring, while the female adult subjects chose either the masculine toy, a football, or the doll more frequently than the neutral toy. Male and female subjects both displayed more physical contact toward the child

when it was introduced as a boy as compared to a girl. However, when the gender of the child was left unspecified, the male subjects displayed significantly less physical contact and the female subjects displayed significantly more physical contact than either condition in which the child was introduced as a boy or a girl. The researchers suggested that the perceived gender of the child may influence the adult-infant interaction more than the child's actual behavior, particularly at an infant's very early developmental stage.

In a replication of this study, Sidorowicz and Lunney (1980) found similar results. The adults interacted differently toward each of three infants depending upon whether the child in each trial was introduced as male or female. The choice of toy was strongly influenced by the gender label of the child. The masculine toy, a football, was used more frequently in the interaction for both male and female adults when the child was perceived to be male, while the feminine toy, the doll, was used more frequently when the child was perceived to be female. None of the males selected the football when the child was introduced as a female.

It appears, however, that adults are generally unaware of differences in their behavior patterns toward male and female children. Culp, Cook, and Housley (1983) studied the interaction which occurred between 16 adult parents and an unfamiliar 6-month-old infant who was identified as either a male or female child. The adults in this study were all parents of two children, an infant son and an infant daughter. When the child was introduced to the adult as a female, the child received significantly more verbal interaction from the adult, more interaction from the adult without direct facial gaze, and less

interaction from the adult with animated facial expressions than when the child was identified as a male child. In addition, the feminine toy, a doll, was selected significantly more often in the interaction between the female adults and the infant when the child was perceived to be female. No significant differences were found in the behavior patterns of the infant. When the adults were asked about the patterns of interaction with their own children, however, the adults indicated that they thought they had played in similar ways with both of their male and female infants. The majority of the subjects also indicated that male and female infants should not be given sex-stereotyped toys. Although adults tend to interact in different ways toward male and female children, it appears that this differential interaction occurs unconsciously despite personal attitudes regarding the appropriateness of sex-role stereotyping.

It is evident that a child's gender plays a significant role in determining the patterns of interaction which occur between the child and his or her parents, beginning in very early infancy. As a result of this interaction, children learn to behave in ways which are consistent with the messages that they receive about themselves (Cahill, 1983). Cahill (1983), a symbolic interactionist, argued that a child's gender identity gradually emerges as the child becomes aware of being male or female and engages in the appropriate behavior which is expected to accompany each of these labels. In addition, children learn that certain adult behaviors are expected of them for the future. These expectations differ according to one's gender. An example of this can be found in the expectations which are attached to the role of work. Looft (1971) studied the vocational aspirations of 33 first- and second-grade children

and found that boys perceived a much wider range of vocational occupations available to them than did girls. When the children were asked what they would like to be when they grew up, the boys chose a total of 18 different occupations, while the girls chose a total of 8 different occupations. The occupations which were chosen reflected traditional sex-role expectations. Boys chose occupations such as doctor, dentist, pilot, and scientist, while the girls chose occupations which included nurse, teacher, mother, stewardess, and sales clerk.

However, since Looft's (1971) study, recent research studies suggest that although girls and boys are socialized toward gender appropriate roles, females now perceive themselves to have a wider range of roles available to them than do males. During 1974-1975, Nemerowicz (1979) studied the perceptions of children in grades 2, 4, and 6 toward male and female gender and work roles. Boys and girls in all three grades described men and women in terms of traditional roles, i.e., paid work outside the home for males and a role involving work inside the home for females. This perception declined, however, as the ages of the children increased. When asked to describe what their future work role might be, girls did not view themselves in the roles of wife or mother but rather as workers. The favorite occupations were traditionally female ones, such as teachers and nurses, but professional careers were also favored. One-third of sixth grade girls chose nontraditional occupations. Most girls saw themselves combining work outside the home with work inside the home, rather than assuming only the traditional roles of wife and mother. Boys were significantly more stereotyped in their choices of occupations. The most popular choices of careers among the boys were professional ones, such as doctor and scientist, and sports-related occupations. None

of the 188 boys selected the traditionally female roles of nurse, housekeeper, or waitress. Boys viewed housework as undesirable and unanimously rejected the housework role as a possibility for themselves. Nemerowicz (1979) suggested that the findings are reflective of the broadening definition of women's roles. Such broad complementary changes in men's roles are not thought to have occurred. Men, for example, are generally not seen leaving the labour force to assume responsibility for housework roles and to perform domestic duties.

A recent large Canadian study also found girls to be supportive of women combining family roles with work outside the home (King, Robertson, & Warren, 1984). In a study which examined the health-related attitudes and behaviors of 9-, 12-, and 15-year-old children, King, Robertson, and Warren (1984) found that girls in grades 7 and 10 were significantly more supportive than boys of women combining family roles with work outside the home. In addition, significantly fewer girls than boys agreed that certain careers were best suited for men.

Archer (1984) studied the attitudes of 283 Kindergarten, fifth grade, and eleventh grade students toward adult occupational roles and found that sex stereotyping decreases as the age of children increases. Archer (1984) thought that this reflected the fact that as children matured they had more opportunities to view men and women in nontraditional roles. In this study, the number of occupational choices open to males and females were perceived to be equal in number. However, only a few males chose careers which have traditionally been considered female occupations, while large numbers of females at each grade level chose careers which have traditionally been considered male occupations. The findings of this study lend support to the view that more change has

occurred in attitudes toward female roles than toward male roles.

Using the data from three national surveys and surveys from the University of Michigan and the Research Triangle Institute of North Carolina, Mason, Czajka, and Arber (1976) studied recent changes in the sex-role attitudes of American women. They found evidence that widespread changes in the sex role attitudes of American women had occurred since 1960. These changes included endorsement of the rights of women to keep their jobs during their childbearing years, the rights of women to equal employment opportunities, the obligation of husbands to share housework duties, and the possibility of a life without marriage and parenthood for women. The changing sex role attitudes of men were not part of this study.

Some changes in sex role attitudes among men appear to have also occurred over recent years. Pleck (1979) suggested that, despite evidence of a slower rate of change among men's roles compared with the rapid change in women's roles, men are experiencing increased conflict between work and family roles. Evidence of changes among men toward family roles was found in a recent study which compared the sex role attitudes of college educated males with their mothers and fathers (Eversoll, 1979). Eversoll (1979) developed an instrument to measure the role expectations that individuals hold toward a male parent. Use of this instrument revealed a significant difference in sex role expectations between the college males and both of their parents. The sons in this study expected fathers to be more involved in the care of their children, more involved in family recreational activities, and less involved in the roles of work and community participation than did their mothers and their fathers. Both generations of males expected fathers to

be problem solvers. Eversoll (1979) suggested that the attitudinal changes among the sons of this study could lead to changes in their sex role behavior.

It may be that the role of fatherhood is becoming increasingly more salient for men. However, whereas large numbers of women have entered and remained in the labour force in recent years, a similar shift for men toward the role of fatherhood has not been found. Hoffman (1977) suggested that the change in women's roles to include work outside the home has been more clearly documented than changes in men's roles to include the role of fatherhood as an alternative role. This may be because of greater social approval of females entering a traditionally masculine environment, that of work outside the home, than of males entering a traditionally feminine environment, that of work inside the home. In addition, traditionally masculine roles may be more socially valued than traditionally feminine roles (Feinman, 1981), and are, therefore, more desirable.

Research indicates that cross-sex-role behavior is more socially approved for females than it is for males (Feinman, 1974, 1981). Feinman (1974) found that both male and female college students were significantly more disapproving of males who engaged in behaviors thought to be appropriately feminine than of females who engaged in behaviors thought to be appropriately masculine. The behavior of males was generally approved only when it was clearly masculine while the approved behavior of females included both feminine and masculine types of activities. In a later study of cross-sex-role behavior, Feinman (1981) found similar results. Male-role behavior was found to be more socially appropriate than female-role behavior for both males and females. In

other words, it appears that males who engage in typically female behavior may experience higher costs in social disapproval than females who engage in typically male behavior. Feinman (1981) suggested that males who display cross-sex-role behavior appear to experience status loss while females who display cross-sex-role behavior experience status gain.

A review of the research indicates that changes have occurred over the last twenty years in attitudes toward both male and female roles. It is evident, however, that there has been greater change in social attitudes toward female roles than toward male roles. This change is reflected in the increasing numbers of women who have entered the labour force. It would appear that social disapproval is less for women who assume the role of work outside the home than for men who assume the role of work inside the home. It appears that women who enter the labour force have more to gain than men who display cross-sex-role behavior and work full-time inside the home. As such, men essentially have only one major role available to them which is socially valued. That role is the role of paid worker. It appears that women, on the other hand, may have more than one major socially valued role available to them. These roles may include paid worker and the roles of wife and mother.

The Availability of Alternative Roles

It appears that the primary role of men is that of worker. Parsons (1977) hypothesized that the role of an adult male is closely tied to the occupational world. The maintenance of a work position outside the home provides economic support for his family as well as status within the community. Parsons (1977) further suggested that men had other important roles within the family system but that the greater importance of the

work role served to designate the husband-father as the instrumental leader of the family system.

Much of the literature in the area of work emphasizes the importance of the role of work for men (Eisenberg & Lazarsfeld, 1938; Ginsburg, 1942; Rainwater, 1974; Tausky & Piedmont, 1967). Beer (1983) provided evidence through census data of the importance of the male work role in American society. According to statistics from 1977, only approximately 270,000 men in the United States had assumed the full-time role of work inside the home. This was less than 1% of all married men in the United States. Comparable statistics for the number of Canadian men who have assumed the role of work inside the home are not available. Some of the men in Beer's study who had become househusbands expressed feelings of the loss of status as well as ambivalence about the change that they had made in their role.

The role of paid worker appears to be the most socially valued role for men. Komarovsky (1976) interviewed 62 male college seniors and found that the men in her sample maintained traditional sex role values when asked about their own future roles and the preferred roles of women they might marry. All but four of the men in the sample perceived the role of work to be a man's primary role in life. Most men were willing to assist their wives with some household duties in the home, however, they unanimously rejected role reversal. Child care was believed to be the primary responsibility of women. Komarovsky (1976) suggested that there was evidence for some decline in the attitudes among the men of her sample away from sharp sex-role differentiation toward egalitarian attitudes in the workplace. These attitudes, however, "coexist with the deeply rooted norm that the husband should be the superior achiever in

the occupational world and the wife, the primary child rearer" (Komarovsky, 1976, p. 34).

It seems evident that very few men perceive that they have any major role available to them other than the role of work. Fatherhood is not generally perceived to be an available alternative role for men in the sense that motherhood is for women. If men do not hold a work position outside the home, they obviously must fill their day with activities which include searching for new employment or with activities in the home setting. These home activities might include tasks such as housework and child care which have traditionally been thought to reflect the feminine role. Hill (1978) suggested that men who experience the loss of work not only lose their occupational identity, but also their sexual identity as they are pressured to assume traditionally female duties. Most men in his study felt uncomfortable in this role. Similarly, Braginsky and Braginsky (1975) found that the men in their sample who had experienced the loss of work felt less masculine as a result of the absence of the work role.

In addition to the social perception that fatherhood is not an available alternative role, most men do not have that role available to them for financial reasons. In most occupations, different parental leave benefits are available to working men and women. While many women may have maternity leave benefits available to them, few occupations offer such benefits to men. Furthermore, if paternity leave is available, it is usually unpaid. Men usually earn higher incomes than women; thus, in most cases, taking such leave would result in the family taking a financial loss. Therefore, the perception of the availability of the parenting role differs for men and women in terms of socialization

and in terms of the true availability of such a role which might be offered in work-related benefits.

While most women appear to have more socially valued roles available to them than do men (Arnott, 1972), this greater availability of alternative roles must be analyzed within the context of a woman's marital and parental status. Blau (1978) suggested that for obvious economic reasons single women, including those who might be widowed, divorced, or separated are more likely to work than married women. Historically, a large percentage of single women have worked in the labour force (Statistics Canada, 1985c). Unless some sort of financial support is available to single women from outside the role of work, they are required to maintain a work position in the labour market. Work is, therefore, a primary role for this subset of women.

While it might be argued that married women without children might have an alternative role available to them, it appears that marriage in itself is not now a significant cause for women workers to leave the labour force voluntarily. Studies indicate that the role of housewife, which would be the alternative role for childless wives to assume if they were not working, is less desirable to the contemporary working wife than it has been in the past (Ferree, 1976; Iglehart, 1979). Iglehart (1979) found that only 3% of working wives in 1976 would prefer to be a full-time housewife compared to 22% in 1957. Ferree (1976) studied working-class wives and found that over half of the employed women in her sample thought themselves better off than women who were not working outside the home. The housewives in her sample expressed the belief that they were doing something that was less interesting than their husbands, and also thought of themselves as being worse off than working wives.

Ferree (1976) suggested that housework as a job is not considered valuable work, results in social isolation, and may create a sense of powerlessness, while paid employment outside the home provides a source of higher self-esteem. Although the role of housewife might be an alternative role which is available to childless working women, it does not appear to be considered a socially valued alternative role.

Historically, the presence of small children in a family has reduced the possibility that a woman would work in a paid position outside of the home (Waite, 1976). Although the group with the largest increase in participation rates in the labour force has been working women with preschool children (Statistics Canada, 1985a), this group still makes up a smaller percentage of the labour force than do women without children and women with older children. Fewer women in this stage of the life cycle work than at any other time in their lives (Waite, 1980). Iglehart (1979) suggested that this is because for many women, fulfillment of the role of mother precludes any other role which might be available to them. Waite (1980) hypothesized that for married women with preschool children, real as well as psychic costs outweigh the gains which might result from her employment. Real costs include those which result from securing adequate child-care provisions, while psychic costs result from the lack of time-intensive investment with children that non-working mothers can provide. In her study, Waite (1980) found that the younger the child, the less likely it was that the mother worked. The probability that the mother of an infant worked was 40 percentage points lower than for mothers of children who were at least 4 years old.

Although there is evidence that there has been a decrease in the inhibiting effect of motherhood upon female employment (Statistics

Canada, 1985c), the role of motherhood is still considered an important role for women. Social attitudes toward the working mothers of preschool children remain negative (Lipman-Blumen, 1984). Surveys of public attitudes in 1975 revealed that 75% of the population firmly believed that women with young children should not work outside the home unless it is an economic necessity (Armstrong & Armstrong, 1978). Hoffman (1974) suggested that leaving the work force for motherhood is a socially sanctioned activity. Working mothers maintain two roles and in the event of job loss, they may have a socially valued alternative role available to them, that of motherhood.

In summary, the majority of men are expected to fulfill the primary role of worker. There is no evidence that a socially valued alternative role is available to men in the event of the loss of work. Although sex-role attitudes towards men's roles have changed, full-time fatherhood is not perceived to be a socially valued alternative role for men when the role of paid worker is lost. When the loss of work occurs, men are expected to pursue an alternative work role rather than a role of work inside the home. It is assumed for men, therefore, that the loss of one work role will be replaced by the resumption of another work role.

Similarly, unless single childless women have outside financial resources available to them, they too rely upon earnings from their work position. They are not protected economically through marriage, nor do they have the role of motherhood available to them. The primary role for single, childless women is that of paid worker. A socially valued alternative role is, therefore, not available to single, childless women when the loss of work occurs.

Many married childless women may also not perceive a socially valued

alternative role in the event of the loss of work. Research studies indicate that the role of full-time housewife is not considered a socially valued role. Married working women with young children, on the other hand, fulfill two major roles, worker and mother. If the role of worker is lost, married women with young children may be able to assume the role of mother, which may even be more rewarding socially. According to Cohn's model, the effect of the loss of work upon an individual's self-esteem should be less if a socially valued alternative role is available. Cohn (1978) suggested that for women, the alternative role of mother would provide an alternate source of gratification and satisfaction that is not available to men.

Summary

Research in the area of unemployment indicates an individual's psychological well-being may be negatively affected by the loss of work. Unemployed men have been found to experience effects such as lowered self-esteem, loss of morale, loss of self-confidence, and depression. Those who are highly committed to their work role are more affected by the loss of work than those who are less committed. Much less is known about the effect of unemployment upon the self-esteem of women.

Analysis of the relationships between employment status and male and female self-esteem requires examination of the acquisition of gender roles. A review of the literature indicates that the sex-role expectations for males and females differ substantially. Although changes in sex-role attitudes have occurred in recent years, there appears to have been more change in sex-role attitudes towards women's roles than towards men's roles. Generally speaking, men are perceived as having only one socially approved role available to them, that of paid

worker. Therefore, when the loss of work occurs, men are not perceived as having a socially valued alternative role. The role of women, however, has expanded from the traditional role of mother to include that of paid worker. An alternative role may be available to those women who experience the loss of work and who also have the role of mother within their larger role set. The loss of work may, therefore, have different effects upon the self-esteem of men and women depending upon the availability of a socially valued alternative role. It seems evident that the relationship between the loss of work, gender, and the availability of an alternative role needs to be examined further. This study examined this relationship for a group of professional workers.

Hypotheses

In order to examine the relationship between the loss of work and the self-esteem of professional workers, teachers were selected as the sample for this study. With respect to the literature, the following null hypotheses were proposed:

1. There will be no significant difference between the mean scores of self-esteem, as measured by the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale, for teachers who vary by employment status.
2. There will be no significant interaction between the mean scores of self-esteem, as measured by the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale, for teachers who vary by gender and employment status.
3. There will be no significant interaction between the mean scores of self-esteem, as measured by the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale, for teachers who vary by gender, employment status, and the presence of the alternative role of parent.

The following post hoc null hypothesis was tested:

4. There will be no significant interaction between the mean scores on the personal, family, and social subscales of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale, for teachers who vary by gender and employment status.

CHAPTER IV

Research Methods

Sample

Elementary, junior high, and senior high teachers in a large metropolitan area of Western Canada were selected as the sample group for this research study. Half (194) of the randomly selected unemployed teachers who had registered with the Alberta Teachers' Association were mailed packages of research materials. In addition, 69 employed teachers in 10 schools in the Edmonton Public School Board District volunteered to participate in the study. Fifty packages were returned by the unemployed teachers, a return rate of 25.8%, and 32 packages were returned by the employed teachers, a return rate of 46.3%.

Fifty-eight of the 82 participants who completed the research materials were married. This group was used for the main analysis. The research criteria included employed and unemployed married individuals, with or without children. Eleven subjects did not meet the research criteria and were not included in the study. These included single males, females who were either separated, widowed, or divorced, and individuals who were unemployed by choice. An additional 13 single females were included in a post hoc analysis of the effect of work status upon female self-esteem.

Descriptive Data for Married Employed and Underemployed Groups.

Many of the participating teachers who registered themselves as unemployed had subsequently found part-time work and were underemployed rather than unemployed. The married group of teachers included 10 employed males, 7 underemployed males, 30 employed females, 7 underemployed females, and 4 unemployed females. Since there were only

four unemployed female teachers in the total sample, the unemployed and underemployed groups were combined into one group of underemployed. Thirty-eight of the married teachers were parents of children aged 5 years or younger. These teachers were considered to have the alternative role of parent available to them (see Table 1).

The employed and underemployed groups were found to be similar in age, number of years married, and educational background. The mean ages of the employed group and underemployed group were 31.6 years and 32.9 years respectively. The employed group had been married a mean of 8.2 years while the underemployed group had been married a mean of 6.4 years. The majority of employed and underemployed teachers were married to spouses who were employed full-time or part-time (see Table 2).

Financial Data for Married Employed and Underemployed Groups.

The financial situations for the employed and underemployed groups were found to be markedly different. This was reflected in the total family income level for each group as well as the degree of financial worry that each group indicated they were experiencing. The mean family income for the employed group was approximately $42,000, while the mean family income for the underemployed group was $30,000. This large difference was reflected in the perceptions that each group held toward their ability to manage comfortably financially and in the amount of time spent worrying about their present and future financial situations (see Tables 3 and 4).

Employment Data for Married Employed and Underemployed Groups.

Both groups of employed and underemployed teachers felt that a teaching position was very important to them (see Table 5). Differences were found, however, in the mean number of years of teaching experience

Table 1

Distribution of Males and Females With Parent Role

Condition	Gender											
	Males						Females					
	Parent Role		No Parent Role		Total		Parent Role		No Parent Role		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Employed	5	29	5	29	10	58	9	22	21	51	30	73
Under-employed	3	18	4	24	7	42	2	5	5	12	7	17
Unemployed	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	3	7	4	10
Total	8	47	9	53	17	100	12	30	29	70	41	100

Table 2

Descriptive Data for Study Sample

Factor	Employment Status	
	Employed	Underemployed
	%	%
	(raw frequency)	(raw frequency)
Education		
Bachelor Degree	97.5	100
	(39)	(18)
Master Degree	7.5	11
	(3)	(2)
Work Status of Spouse		
Full-time	77.5	55.6
	(31)	(10)
Part-time	10.0	38.9
	(4)	(7)
Not Working	10.0	5.6
	(4)	(1)
Other	2.5	0.0
	(1)	(0)

Table 3

Financial Distribution for Study Sample

Factor	Employment Status	
	Employed	Underemployed
Average Family Income	$42,000	$30,000
Financial Status	%	%
Manage very comfortably	27.5	11.1
Manage comfortably	40.0	22.2
Manage with careful budgeting	30.0	50.0
Manage with difficulty	2.5	11.1
Not managing	0.0	5.6
Frequency of worry (present financial security)	%	%
Most of the time	5.0	27.8
Often	27.5	50.0
Occasionally	47.5	22.2
Seldom	17.5	0.0
Never	2.5	0.0

Table 4

Financial Distribution for Study Sample

Factor	Employment Status	
	Employed	Underemployed
Frequency of worry (future financial security)	%	%
Most of the time	2.5	16.7
Often	32.5	44.4
Occasionally	47.5	33.3
Seldom	17.5	5.6
Never	0.0	0.0

Table 5

Occupational Data for Study Sample

Factor	Work Status	
	Employed	Underemployed
Teaching Experience (years)	7.5	4.6
Days Worked/Month	20.0	10.4
Importance of Job	% (raw frequency)	% (raw frequency)
Very important	70.0 (28)	72.2 (13)
Somewhat important	17.5 (7)	22.2 (4)
Not really important	0.0 (0)	5.6 (1)

and in the number of days worked per month for each group (see Table 5). The majority (72%) of the underemployed teachers had held a full-time teaching position in the past and had taught a mean of 4.6 years. Thirty-three percent had lost their teaching jobs as a result of the position ending, 11.1% chose to change jobs, and 27.8% left teaching for other reasons. The mean length of time since holding a full-time teaching position was 30.4 months. Forty-four percent of the underemployed teachers held substitute teaching positions and worked a mean of 10.4 days per month. Eighty-eight percent of the underemployed teachers indicated that they desired a full-time teaching position and had been making efforts to secure such a position. With regard to their personal feelings about not having a full-time teaching position, the underemployed most frequently felt frustrated, angry, and disappointed.

Role Attitudes for Married Employed and Underemployed Groups.

Both groups of employed and underemployed teachers indicated similar attitudes toward the importance of certain roles in their lives. When asked to number, in order of importance, roles such as the spousal role, parenting role, and teaching role, both groups placed these roles in similar orders of importance. The spousal role was generally the most important role, the parenting role was the second most important role, and the teaching role was the third most important role to the majority of employed and underemployed teachers.

Descriptive Data for Single and Married Female Groups.

Thirteen single female teachers and 41 married female teachers comprised the post hoc sample which was used to analyze the relationship between marital status, work status, and female self-esteem. Forty-six percent of the single women and 26% of the married women were

underemployed. The mean age of the single group (27.7 years) was slightly less that the mean age of the married group (31.3 years). Despite large differences in the total family incomes for the two groups, approximately $20,000 for the single group and $42,000 for the married group, the majority of women from both groups indicated being able to manage either comfortably financially or very comfortably.

Employment Data for Single and Married Female Groups.

The employed female teachers (single and married) varied in the number of years of teaching experience; however, both groups spent large numbers of hours of their own personal time on their work. The single employed women had taught a mean of 1.5 years while the married employed teachers had taught a mean of 7.2 years. The single females spent slightly more of their own personal time (20.8 hours) on their work than did the married females (17.7 hours).

Similar numbers of the underemployed female teachers (single and married) had held full-time teaching positions in the past, however, the married females had been employed as substitute teachers much longer than the single females. Twenty-three percent of the single and 22% of the married underemployed female teachers had held a full-time teaching position in the past. The mean length of time that the single and married groups had been without a full-time teaching position was 45 months and 32.7 months respectively. The single underemployed teachers had held a substitute teaching position a mean of 14.5 months and worked approximately 11 days per month. The married underemployed teachers had been employed as substitute teachers a mean of 28 months and worked approximately 6.5 days per month. All of the single and married underemployed female teachers indicated that they wanted a full-time

teaching position and had made efforts to find one.

Summary.

In summary, most of the teachers who had registered themselves as unemployed had found part-time work and were underemployed rather than unemployed. The majority of individuals in both groups of employed and underemployed teachers were married to spouses who were contributing to the total family income by working either full-time or part-time. Despite this, there was considerable difference in the average family incomes between the two groups, with the employed group earning approximately $12,000 more per year than the underemployed group. This difference was reflected in the perceptions that each group held toward their ability to manage comfortably financially. The majority of teachers considered a teaching job to be very important to them, and those who were underemployed had made efforts to obtain a full-time teaching position. Therefore, with the exception of total family income, the employed and underemployed groups of teachers were found to be quite similar.

The single females in the post hoc sample were slightly younger than the married females and had much lower total family incomes. However, both groups felt comfortable financially. The single employed females had less teaching experience than the married employed teachers, but spent slightly more of their own personal time on their work. The single underemployed females had been without full-time work for considerably longer than the married underemployed females, and had been employed as substitute teachers fewer months. Both groups of single and married underemployed teachers wanted a full-time teaching position and had tried to obtain one. Therefore, the major difference which was found between

the single and married female groups was the number of years of teaching experience.

Materials

A package of materials contained the letter of introduction, an instruction sheet, a demographic questionnaire, an instrument measuring self-esteem (the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale), an answer sheet for the self-esteem instrument, two stamped self-addressed envelopes, and a request form for study results. To ensure participant anonymity, teachers were asked to return the questionnaires and answer sheets in one envelope and the request form in another. When the packages of materials had been returned to the researcher, a debriefing letter was sent to all teachers who had been sent a package of materials.

Letter of Introduction.

Two letters of introduction were used in this research project, one addressed to school principals and one to the employed and underemployed teachers. The purpose of the letter of introduction to principals was to introduce the researcher, to describe the research study, and to ask principals for their assistance in contacting their staff members for possible volunteers (see Appendix A). The letter to teachers provided information about the purpose of the research project, described the procedure and the amount of time required, and informed the teachers that information would be kept confidential (see Appendices B and C).

Instruction Sheet and Demographic Questionnaire.

An instruction sheet was enclosed in each package of materials. The purpose of this sheet was to provide instructions for completion of the demographic questionnaire and the scale measuring self-esteem. The demographic questionnaire was written by the researcher and was used to

obtain information which included age, marital status, family composition, family income, level of education, work status, length of full-time employment, length of unemployment, desire for full-time employment, and work commitment (see Appendix D).

Self-Esteem Instrument.

The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (Fitts, 1964) was used to measure the self-esteem of the participants in this study. This scale provides an overall self-esteem score as well as a complex self-concept profile. The total or overall self-esteem score is derived from totalling the scores of 90 statements. These statements can be categorized into the three major categories of self-identity, self-satisfaction, and behavior. Statements from each of these three categories can be classified further into subscales of physical self, moral-ethical self, personal self, family self, and social self. An additional 10 items provide a measure of self-criticism. The score that was of interest in this study was the total self-esteem score. Post hoc analyses were also conducted on the scores derived from the personal, family, and social subscales.

Each statement of the scale is a short sentence which is designed to be self-descriptive. Individuals completing the scale are asked to respond to each sentence as if they were personally describing themselves. The items are presented in a Likert scale which participants answer by choosing from one of five responses: Completely false, mostly false, partly false and partly true, mostly true, and completely true. The test can be group- or self-administered. For this study, the test was self-administered and computer-scored.

Norms for the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale were developed from testing 626 individuals, ranging in age from 12 to 68 years and

representing a broad range of social, economic, intellectual, and educational levels (Fitts, 1964). The scale has an overall test-retest reliability over two weeks of 0.92, with test-retest reliability of all major subscores ranging between 0.80 and 0.90. Fitts (1964) stated that face validity was insured by including only those items in the scale in which there was unanimous agreement among seven judges that each item had been classified correctly. Gable, LaSalle, & Cook (1973) argued that the content validity of the scale was well-supported by this procedure.

Concurrent validity of the scale was also tested by comparing scores obtained from a large group of psychiatric patients with those scores obtained from the 626 non-patients of the norm group. Significant differences resulted between the two groups, indicating high scale validity on the basis of discrimination between divergent groups. In addition to concurrent validity, Fitts (1964) tested the convergent validity in terms of correlation with other personality measures and predictive validity in terms of personality changes under particular conditions. Fitts (1964) reported that most of the scores of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale correlated with scores on the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory.

Procedure

Permission was received from the Edmonton Public School Board to contact full-time employed teachers for participation in this research study. The principals of 30 randomly chosen elementary, junior high, and senior high schools were sent the introductory letter describing the research study. Ten days after the introductory letter was sent to the principals, the researcher telephoned each of the principals to determine whether they felt that staff members might be interested in participating

in the study. Ten principals indicated that one or more teachers from their schools had expressed an interest in participating. Packages of materials were delivered to each of these principals. A short time after the materials were returned to the researcher, a letter of thank-you was mailed to each cooperating principal and to each teacher who participated. The purpose of this letter was to thank principals and teachers for their participation and to debrief them with regard to their participation in the study (see Appendices E and F).

With the cooperation of the Alberta Teachers' Association, the same package of materials was mailed to one-half of the unemployed teachers registered with the Association. At a later date designated by the researcher, a letter of thank-you was mailed to the same teachers who were sent the research materials. No names were given to the researcher and mailings were completed by the Alberta Teachers' Association, thus insuring participant confidentiality. The study results were sent to those teachers who requested them.

Design

This study was a static-group comparison design. The findings of such a design are considered predictive rather than causal. The dependent variable was self-esteem. Independent variables included work status, gender, and the availability of the alternative role of parent.

CHAPTER V

Results

It was necessary to conduct two separate analyses in order to test the three hypotheses of the study. This was due to small sample frequencies. A two-way analysis of variance was used to test the significance of work status and gender upon the self-esteem of married teachers. A one-way analysis of variance was used to test the significance of the availability of the alternative role of parent upon the self-esteem of married teachers. In addition, two post hoc analyses were conducted. A multivariate analysis was conducted to test the significance of three dependent self-esteem variables, the personal, family and social subscales, with the independent variables, work status and gender. Secondly, a post hoc two-way analysis of variance was used to test the significance of marital status and work status upon the self-esteem of single and married female teachers. The selected level of significance for each analysis was .05.

Statistical Analyses

Norms derived from psychometric data on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale indicate that the mean self-esteem score is 345.57 and the standard deviation is 30.70. For the present sample, the mean self-esteem score for the married group of male and female teachers was 361.02, with a standard deviation of 31.24. The mean self-esteem scores for the employed male and female teachers were 364.7 and 366.3, with standard deviations of 35.7 and 28.8 respectively. The mean scores for the underemployed male and female teachers were 343.14 and 354.64, with standard deviations of 36.64 and 29.14 (see Appendix G, Table G-1). These scores were lower than both sets of scores for the employed

teachers but they were within one standard deviation of the norms. The main effect comparing the self-esteem of employed and underemployed teachers ($F=2.843$, $df=1/54$, $p=.098$) was not significant. The null hypothesis which predicted no significant difference between the mean scores of self-esteem for teachers who varied by employment status could, therefore, not be rejected. Similarly, the main effect comparing the self-esteem of male to female teachers ($F=0.329$, $df=1/54$, $p=.568$) was not significant (see Appendix G, Table G-2 for Anova summary table).

The two-way interaction between gender and employment status for married teachers ($F=.277$, $df=1/54$, $p=.601$) was not significant. This finding offered no support for the second hypothesis which predicted a significant interaction between the mean scores of self-esteem for teachers who varied by gender and employment status.

A post hoc multivariate test of significance was conducted to test the relationship between work status, gender, and three subscales, the personal, family, and social subscales. These subscales were selected for analysis based on findings from previous research which indicated that personal, family, and social relationships may be affected by the loss of work (Braginsky & Braginsky, 1975; Hill, 1978; Krahn, Lowe, & Tanner, 1984; Powell & Driscoll, 1973). Two other subscales, the moral-ethical and the physical subscales were not selected for analysis. Previous research indicated that little change occurs to an individual's perception of his or her moral worth or religious perspective in the event of job loss (Bakke, 1940; Cavan & Ranck, 1938). In addition, a review of previous research (Gore, 1978; Warr, 1984) provided evidence of greater inpact upon an individual's psychological well-being than upon physical well-being.

The results of this multivariate test of significance (Pillais, F=1.95860, p=.132) for work status was not significant; however, the univariate F-tests revealed significant effects for work status within the social subscale (F=5.18864, df=1/54, p=.027) and within the family subscale (F=3.90899, df=1/54, p=.053) (see Appendix G, Table G-3). No other effects reached significance.

The third null hypothesis predicted that there would be no significant interaction between the mean scores of self-esteem for teachers who varied by gender, work status, and the presence of the alternative role of parent. Only a small number of teachers were found to have the role of parent available to them. It was not possible to test the interaction effect, therefore, a one-way anova was used to test the effect of the role of parent upon self-esteem. The main effect of the role of parent (F=.004, df=1/56, p=.947) was not significant (see Appendix G, Table G-2).

The final analysis of the study included single and married female teachers. This analysis was conducted in order to assess the relationship between marital status and the self-esteem of employed and underemployed female teachers. The mean self-esteem scores for the single and married employed female teachers were 363.14 and 366.30, with standard deviations of 28.11 and 28.8 respectively. The mean scores for the single and married underemployed female teachers were 348.17 and 354.64, with standard deviations of 41.73 and 29.14 (see Appendix G, Table G-1). Although the mean scores for the underemployed female teachers were lower than for the employed group, the main effect for work status (F=1.951, df=1/50, p=.169) was not significant. The main effect for marital status (F=.211, df=1/50, p=.648) was also not significant.

The interaction effect comparing work status and gender (F=.028, df=1/50, p=.869) was not significant (see Appendix G, Table G-4).

CHAPTER VI

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to assess the relationship between work status and the availability of an alternative role upon the self-esteem of employed and unemployed male and female professional workers. Cohn's (1978) theoretical model of the effect of employment status change on self-attitudes was used as the conceptual framework for this study.

No differences were found in the levels of self-esteem between employed teachers and teachers without full-time work. Neither were there any differences in the self-esteem scores between male and female teachers who were without full-time work. In addition, there were no differences in the self-esteem scores between teachers who had the role of parent available to them and those who did not. The results of this study indicate that some teachers may not be affected by the loss of work to the same extent that workers in other occupations may be. There are several possible reasons for this finding.

First, the majority of the teachers in this study who were without full-time employment were underemployed rather than unemployed. Many were able to find part-time work as substitute teachers when they were unable to find a full-time teaching position. This group was, therefore, still able to define themselves in terms of a work role. It may be that the underemployed teachers of this study did not perceive a loss of employment status as the result of being underemployed. Not only were the underemployed teachers still working at least part-time, many of them were able to maintain their occupational identities as teacher. Consequently, very little change occurred to their self-concepts. In turn, very little change occured to their feelings of self-worth or

self-esteem. It might be concluded that the self-esteem of unemployed teachers may be buffered if they have alternative work roles available to them, particularly if these roles serve to maintain occupational identity.

The results of this study also indicated that gender was not significantly related to work status and self-esteem. There was no significant difference between the self-esteem scores for the male and female underemployed teachers. Cohn (1978) argued that men and women may perceive the role of work differently as the result of differential socialization. Therefore, it might be expected that the importance of the employment status component for men and women would differ. However, the importance of the work role was found to be similar for both men and women. The majority of men and women ranked the role of work after the roles of spouse and parent. This finding suggests that the role of teacher was not perceived to be the primary role for this sample of male and female teachers. If this is so, then, a change in their employment status from employed worker to underemployed worker may not have had as significant an effect upon their self-esteem as predicted by the model.

In addition, it may be that men's roles as well as women's roles are changing. The finding that the majority of men ranked the roles of spouse and parent before the role of work suggests that these roles are becoming increasingly more important to men. If this is so, then men's roles may be expanding.

Due to small sample size, the relationship between the alternative role of parent, gender, and work status upon self-esteem was not determined. Future research involving a larger sample of unemployed rather than underemployed individuals would be beneficial. Such research

would help to determine the overall effect of the loss of work upon self-esteem, as well as the relationship between work status and gender.

Despite the finding that global self-esteem was not related to work status or gender, scores on the social and family subscales were found to be related to work status. The social subscale on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale measures an individual's perceived sense of worth in terms of social relationships and adequacy of social interaction with other people. In other words, this subscale measures an individual's sense of worth in relation to others. Underemployed teachers had significantly lower scores ($\bar{X}$=67.62) on the social subscale than the employed teachers ($\bar{X}$=72.93).

If the social activities of this group of underemployed teachers were curtailed as the result of their underemployment, this group of underemployed teachers may have perceived their social relationships with others to be less adequate than the employed group. This has been found to be true for unemployed professionals (Braginsky & Braginsky, 1975; Powell & Driscoll, 1973). Powell and Driscoll (1973) found that the unemployed professionals in their study significantly reduced their social relationships with others because they perceived their new lifestyle as an unemployed person to be no longer compatible with most of their friends. Similarly, Braginsky and Braginsky (1975) found that the stigma of unemployment left the professionals in their study feeling too embarrassed to be with their friends. They also felt that many of their friends avoided them as the result of becoming unemployed. Thus, they became socially isolated.

The second subscale which was found to be related to work status was the family subscale. This subscale measures an individual's perceived

sense of worth as a family member. On this subscale, the underemployed teachers were found to have significantly lower scores ($\bar{X}$=70.02) than the employed teachers ($\bar{X}$=74.67). This finding is consistent with the results from other research studies (Braginsky & Braginsky, 1975; Powell & Driscoll, 1973). Braginsky and Braginsky (1973) found that 64% of the unemployed professionals in their study felt that they were of no value to their families. Similarly, Powell and Driscoll (1973) found that the unemployed men in their sample perceived themselves to be a burden to their families, and marital relationships became impaired, particularly in families where the roles were rigidly defined.

Despite the finding of this study that the underemployed teachers had significantly lower scores than the employed teachers on the social and family subscales, these measures were not strong enough to significantly reduce their global self-esteem scores. It may be that other components of their self-concepts were sufficiently maintained, resulting in little change to their global self-esteem scores. Besides the social and family subscales, the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale measures an individual's perception of his or her personal self, moral-ethical self, and physical self. These three subscales measure an individual's perception of the worth of his or her personality, perceived worth as a moral person, and perceived worth of his or her body and physical attributes. No significant differences were found on the personal subscale. The moral-ethical and physical subscales were not tested. However, it seems possible that these two components among the underemployed, perceptions of one's moral-ethical self and one's physical self, were not significantly different from the employed group. Thus, although the underemployed may perceive themselves to be less adequate

family members and to have less adequate social relationships than the employed, their overall self-esteem was not significantly influenced by these perceptions.

Other reasons which may help to explain why the self-esteem scores for the underemployed teachers were not significantly different from the scores of the employed teachers include attribution of cause for the status change and educational attainment. Cohn (1978) argued that the attribution of cause for the status change which occurs through the loss of work will influence the individual's evaluation of his or her self-concept. If an individual perceives the loss of work to be caused by an external factor, it is less likely that self-attitudes will be affected. Underemployed teachers may, at the present time, accurately perceive the lack of employment to be the result of present economic conditions in which many teachers are unable to find full-time work. Unemployment rates have remained high for the past five years, and teachers are one group of professionals who have been affected by the lack of jobs. The lack of full-time employment may be attributed to the economic environment rather than to personal failure. If the inability to secure full-time employment is attributed to general economic conditions rather than personal qualifications; then the evaluation of one's self-concept may be protected by these perceptions.

Professional workers who experience the loss of work may also have the advantage of having a greater number of positively evaluated components within their total self-concept to help buffer the effect of job loss than do blue-collar workers. Cohn (1978) found that educational attainment significantly reduced the effect of the loss of work among white collar workers. The achievement of higher levels of education may

provide occupational status which is a positively evaluated component within an individual's total self-concept. Such status may also lessen the effect of underemployment.

The employed teachers who participated in this study were found to have levels of self-esteem which were similar to those found by Whiteside (1977). Whiteside (1977) found no difference in the self-esteem of male and female teachers, and also found that male and female teachers had higher than average levels of self-esteem. The teachers who participated in this study were also found to have higher than average levels of self-esteem. Although the sample was small, the employed and underemployed teachers in this study appear to be representative of teachers in general. However, the underemployed men and women who participated in this study may not be representative of unemployed professionals. This is because of the maintenance of a work role which provided them with income and occupational identity. It is not possible, therefore, to draw conclusions about the effects of unemployment upon professional workers. However, if the importance of the role of work is becoming more similar for men and women, men and women could be expected to experience many of the same effects if the loss of work occurs, and unemployment results.

In summary, the results of this research study suggest that underemployment may reduce the effects of the loss of work upon an individual's self-esteem. Many of the underemployed teachers in this study had a work role available to them, that of substitute teacher. The role of substitute teacher may have partially replaced the role of full-time teacher within each teacher's self-concept. Although this role may not have been the preferred role, the underemployed teachers were

able to evaluate themselves in terms of this role rather than having no role at all. In addition, having this role served to maintain their occupational identities as teachers. Having this role may have reduced the effects of the lack of full-time employment upon their self-esteem.

The results of this study also suggest that the social and family roles of underemployed individuals may be perceived differently than those of employed individuals. It is not possible to draw a causal conclusion regarding the social relationships among the underemployed, for it may be that social relationships are reduced, which alters the perceived adequacy of these relationships, or vice versa. It seems, however, that despite the fact that the underemployed may hold different perceptions from employed individuals regarding their value as family members and as members of a social group, these two perceptions are not strong enough to alter their global self-esteem. This may be due to the maintenance of other components within their self-concepts.

There was no evidence in this study to suggest that men and women perceive the role of work differently. The lack of significant difference between levels of self-esteem for male and female underemployed teachers offered equivocal support for Cohn's (1978) argument that differential socialization may result in differences among men and women in the importance of employment status maintenance. As indicated in the literature, broad changes have occurred over the last twenty years in sex-role attitudes towards women's roles. These changes have broadened the role of women to include the role of worker with that of wife and mother. Perhaps the role of work, which has traditionally been considered a major role for men, is increasingly becoming a socially valued major role for women. Future research studies are needed to

determine whether this change is occurring.

It may also be that men's roles are changing. Over half of the men in this sample valued the roles of spouse and parent more than the role of work. This does not suggest that work is becoming unimportant to men. Instead, it may be that, men's roles, like women's roles are expanding. It may be that the roles of spouse and parent are becoming more socially valued roles for men. As Eversoll (1979) suggested, attitudinal changes among men may lead to changes in their roles as family members.

Hoffman (1977) concluded that contemporary changes in sex roles provided evidence for the emergence of "new family roles, new socialization patterns, and a decrease in the differences between the sexes" (p. 656). Changes may be occurring in women's roles as well as men's roles. If this is so, then men and women may be expected to increasingly be affected in similar ways by changes which may occur to their work status. Hopefully, with increasing numbers of women entering the labour force, future research efforts in the area of unemployment will involve equal numbers of men and women so that a more comprehensive analysis of the issue is possible.

CHAPTER VII

Implications

There are two broad implications which are a result of this study. First, the findings of this study indicate that the effects of unemployment cannot be generalized to all groups of workers. As Hepworth (1980) concluded, "the unemployed are by no means homogeneous in their reactions to joblessness, and it should not be assumed that every unemployed person passes through a similar pattern of subjective experiences" (p. 145). Professional workers, for example, may not be affected by the loss of work to the same extent that workers in other occupations may be. This is because some professionals have a work role to turn to when full-time employment is not available. Such a role, even if it is not a preferred role, would help to maintain the individual's identity as a worker. Such a role would also offer many of the same benefits that a full-time work role would offer. These might include income, physical or mental activity, variety, temporal structure, social contacts, and status. Receipt of these benefits would help to maintain an individual's feelings of self-worth or self-esteem.

Workers in other occupations, such as blue-collar workers who have limited education and skills, are very often unable to find any work. Thus, when the loss of work occurs, they may have no role available to them which would serve to maintain their self-identity as a worker. Workers in this situation frequently experience a host of negative physical and psychological effects as the result of the loss of work. Therefore, it seems important to analyze the effects of unemployment for various groups of workers in terms of each situation. Employment counsellors and mental health professionals should be aware that clients

who have experienced the loss of work and subsequent unemployment have a unique set of needs associated with reemployment.

Second, it may be that the role of work is becoming a role of similar importance for Canadian men and women. Work provides income, occupational fulfillment, social contact, status, and so on. In addition, researchers agree that two important functions of work are identity maintenance and enhancement of self-esteem. These are benefits which men and women can both enjoy as the result of a work role. Therefore, men and women can be expected to be affected in similar ways by their employment status, regardless of their gender.

With increasing numbers of women continuing to enter the labour force, the roles of men and women may continue to change. Such changes can be expected to have effects upon patterns of socialization, and over time, differences between the sexes may continue to diminish.

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APPENDIX A

Letter of Introduction to School Principals

University of Alberta
Edmonton

Department of Family Studies
Faculty of Home Economics

Canada T6G 2H1

801 General Services Building, Telephone (403) 432-5771

October 9, 1985

Name of principal
Name of school
Street address
Edmonton, Alberta
Postal Code

Dear Sir or Madam:

As a graduate student working toward a Master of Science degree in the Department of Family Studies at the University of Alberta, I am currently involved in a research project designed to explore the relationship between work status, family roles, and certain personality characteristics.

I am seeking teachers who might be willing to participate in this project and would appreciate your assistance in helping me contact your staff members for possible volunteers. I am particularly interested in married male and female teachers who are younger than 35 years of age and who have worked at least one year full time. I am seeking teachers who are either childless or who have at least one child (under the age of five years) living with them in their home.

Participation in the research project will involve completion of a demographic questionnaire and a scale measuring the way individuals see themselves. If you have any teachers who are interested in participating in this project, these materials will be delivered to your school. All information which is obtained will be used exclusively for the purposes of this research project and will be treated in a confidential manner. I do not require personal names, therefore, those teachers who participate will remain anonymous. Questionnaires may be completed at each teacher's convenience and will require a maximum of 35 minutes.

If you are able to assist me, you may wish to inform your staff members about my research project. I am enclosing an example of a letter of information which you may wish to give to any teacher expressing an interest in participating. If you require more copies, I would be pleased to deliver them to your school. I am also willing to meet at a convenient time with you and your staff if you would prefer me to do so.

This project has been approved by an ethics committee at the University of Alberta. Dr. Nancy Hurlbut, supervising thesis advisor, would be pleased to answer any questions with regard to this research project. Dr. Hurlbut may be reached at 432-5766 or 432-5771.

...2

The participation of interested members of your staff is very much appreciated. Final group results of the project will be made available to those participants requesting them and to you if you are interested.

I wish to thank you in advance for any assistance which you can give me. I will be in contact with you shortly to determine whether you would be willing to contact your staff about this research project or if you would like me to contact them.

Yours sincerely,

Lynn Kustra

Lynn Kustra

APPENDIX B

Letter of Introduction to Employed Teachers

University of Alberta
Edmonton
Canada T6G 2H1

Department of Family Studies
Faculty of Home Economics
801 General Services Building, Telephone (403) 432-5771

Dear Teacher,

As a graduate student working toward a Master of Science degree in the Department of Family Studies at the University of Alberta, I am currently involved in a research project designed to explore the relationship between work status, family roles, and certain personality characteristics.

I am seeking teachers who might be willing to participate in this project. I am particularly interested in married male and female teachers who are younger than 35 years of age and who have worked at least one year full-time. I am seeking teachers who are either childless or who have at least one child (under the age of five years) living with them in their home.

Participation in the research project will involve completion of a demographic questionnaire and a scale measuring the way individuals see themselves. These materials will be delivered to you at your school if you are interested in participating in the project. Your participation in this research project will be completely voluntary and you may withdraw at any time. All information which is obtained will be used exclusively for the purposes of this research project and will be treated in a confidential manner. I do not require personal names, therefore, if you decide that you would like to participate, your responses will be anonymous. The questionnaires may be completed at your convenience and will require a maximum of 35 minutes of your time. Completed questionnaires can be returned by mail in an enclosed envelope.

This project has been approved by an ethics committee at the University of Alberta. Dr. Nancy Hurlbut, supervising thesis advisor, would be pleased to answer any questions with regard to this research project. Dr. Hurlbut may be reached at 432-5766 or 432-5771.

Your participation in this research project would be very much appreciated. Although I am unable to send you a copy of your scores, I would be happy to send you a copy of the final group results if you are interested in receiving them.

If you decide to participate in this project, you may wish to inform your principal. I will be in contact with him (her) shortly.

Thank you.

Yours sincerely,

Lynn Kustra

APPENDIX C

Letter of Introduction to Unemployed Teachers

University of Alberta
Edmonton
Canada T6G 2H1

Department of Family Studies
Faculty of Home Economics
801 General Services Building, Telephone (403) 432-5771

Dear Teacher,

As a graduate student working toward a Master of Science degree in the Department of Family Studies at the University of Alberta, I am currently involved in a research project designed to explore the relationship between work status, family roles, and certain personality characteristics.

I am seeking teachers who might be willing to participate in this project. I am particularly interested in married male and female teachers who are younger than 35 years of age and who have worked at least one year full-time. I am seeking teachers who are either childless or who have at least one child (under the age of five years) living with them in their home.

Participation in the research project will involve completion of a demographic questionnaire and a scale measuring the way individuals see themselves. Your participation in this research project will be completely voluntary and you may withdraw at any time. All information which is obtained will be used exclusively for the purposes of this research project and will be treated in a confidential manner. I do not require personal names, therefore, if you decide that you would like to participate, your responses will be anonymous. The questionnaires may be completed at your convenience and will require a maximum of 35 minutes of your time.

This project has been approved by an ethics committee at the University of Alberta. Dr. Nancy Hurlbut, supervising thesis advisor, would be pleased to answer any questions with regard to this research project. Dr. Hurlbut may be reached at 432-5766 or 432-5771.

Your participation in this research project would be very much appreciated. Although I am unable to send you a copy of your scores, I would be happy to send you a copy of the final group results if you are interested in receiving them. You may obtain a copy of the project results by signing the request card and mailing it in the enclosed white envelope.

You will find all of the necessary materials in this package. If you decide to participate in this project, the questionnaires may be returned to me in the enclosed stamped, brown envelope. Please return the completed questionnaires by November 12.

Thank you.

Yours sincerely,

Lynn M. Kustra

Lynn Kustra

APPENDIX D

Demographic Questionnaire

Study Work 1 _____

Demographic Questionnaire

Please complete this questionnaire first and answer every question very carefully. You do not need to put your name on this questionnaire or on any other questionnaires. When you have completed this questionnaire, place it into the enclosed brown envelope, then proceed to the second questionnaire. Do not seal the envelope until both questionnaires are complete.

1. Date: _____

2. Sex: _____ male _____ female

3. Date of Birth: _____ _____ _____
   day month year

4. a. What is your marital status?

   _____ single _____ married

   _____ separated/divorced _____ widow/widower

   _____ other (please specify _____)

   b. How long have you continuously been living with your present spouse or partner? _____

   c. What is the work status of your spouse or partner?

   _____ working full-time

   _____ working part-time

   _____ not working

   _____ other (please specify) _____

   _____ this question does not apply to me

5. a. Do you have any children? _____ yes. _____ no.

Study Work 1 _____

b. If you answered yes, what are the ages and the sex of the children that live with you?

Age	Sex	Age	Sex
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____

6. Are you or your partner pregnant? _____ yes. _____ no.

7. What is the highest level of education that you have completed? (If you hold a university degree or more than one degree, please indicate the name of each.)

_____

8. Most people have many different roles in their lives. The role of teacher is an example of one role which may be very important to you. You may feel that you have other roles that are also very important. Number the following roles in the order of their importance in your life (use number 1 for the role that you consider to be the most important role, number 2 for the next most important role, and so on). This may be very hard to do.

_____ spouse

_____ community volunteer

_____ parent

_____ son or daughter

_____ teacher

_____ other (please specify _____)

Study Work 1 _____

9. a. What is your total gross family income?

_____ below $10,000
_____ $10,000-19,999
_____ $20,000-29,999
_____ $30,000-39,999
_____ $40,000-49,999
_____ $50,000-59,999
_____ $60,000-69,999
_____ above $70,000

b. How well do you feel that you are able to afford the basic necessities such as housing, food, and clothing each month?

_____ manage very comfortably
_____ manage comfortably
_____ manage with careful budgeting
_____ manage with difficulty
_____ not managing
_____ I am uncertain

10. a. How often do you worry about your present financial security?

_____ most of the time
_____ often
_____ occasionally
_____ seldom
_____ never

b. How often do you worry about your future financial security?

_____ most of the time
_____ often
_____ occasionally
_____ seldom
_____ never

Study Work 1 _____

11. What is your present work status?

_____ teaching full-time

_____ teaching full-time and other work (please specify _____)

_____ supply teaching (substitute teaching)

_____ supply teaching and other work (please specify _____)

_____ not employed

_____ other (please specify _____)

12. If you are presently teaching full-time, please answer the following questions (a to d). If you are not teaching full-time, please go on to question #13.

a. How many years have you held a full-time teaching position?

_____ years

b. What grade/s do you presently teach? _____

c. How important do you feel that your job is to you?

_____ very important

_____ somewhat important

_____ not really important

_____ not important at all

d. On the average, how many hours of your own personal time do you spend on your work per week? _____ hours

Thank you. If you are a full-time teacher, you are now finished.

13. If you are a supply (substitute) teacher, or if you are presently not employed, please answer the following questions (a to i)

Study Work 1 _____

a. Have you held a full-time teaching position in the past?

_____ yes. _____ no.

b. If you answered yes, how many years did you teach full-time?

_____ years

c. If you answered yes, when was the last day of your last full-time teaching position? _____

d. If you answered yes, why did you leave that position?

_____ I wanted to change jobs but still wanted full-time work

_____ I wanted a part-time teaching position

_____ the position ended (this could be due to school closing; your contract not being renewed, etc.)

_____ I became a full-time parent

_____ other (please specify _____

_____

e. How important do you feel that a full-time teaching position is to you?

_____ very important

_____ somewhat important

_____ not really important

_____ not important at all

f. How do you feel about not having a full-time teaching position? (Please choose 3 words. Place a number 1 in front of the way you feel most often, a number 2 in front of the next most often feeling, and so on).

Study Work 1

_____ satisfied

_____ frustrated

_____ relieved

_____ embarrassed

_____ optimistic

_____ angry

_____ happy

_____ disappointed

g. How many months have you been a supply teacher with Edmonton Public School Board? _____ months

_____ this question does not apply to me

h. If you are a supply teacher, approximately how many days do you work per month?

_____ days

_____ this question does not apply to me

i. Do you desire a full-time teaching position?

_____ yes. _____ no.

j. Have you been making efforts to secure a full-time teaching position?

_____ yes. _____ no.

Thank you very much for completing this questionnaire.

APPENDIX E

Letter of Thank-you to Principals

University of Alberta
Edmonton
Canada T6G 2H1

Department of Family Studies
Faculty of Home Economics
801 General Services Building, Telephone (403) 432-5771

Name of principal
Name of school
Street address
Edmonton, Alberta
Postal code

Dear Sir or Madam,

I wish to thank you for your assistance in contacting your staff for participation in my research project. Your cooperation enabled me to complete the collection of the data which was needed for my project.

The project was designed to explore the relationship between work status, family roles, and certain personality characteristics. I am interested in determining whether differences exist in self-esteem between individuals who teach full-time and those who are either underemployed or unemployed, and if so, whether these differences are influenced by gender and by the presence of the role of parent.

I hope that the results of this project will lead to further investigations of the relationship between work status, family roles, and self-esteem. In addition, it is hoped that more will be learned about the attitudes of people who combine work and family roles.

I hope to have the results of the project available within eight months. If you are interested in receiving a copy of the group results, I would be happy to send a copy to you. I may be reached at 458-6824.

If you have any further questions regarding my research project, you may contact me at the above telephone number or you may contact my thesis advisor, Dr. Nancy Hurlbut, at 432-5766 or 432-5771.

Thank you again for your assistance.

Yours sincerely,

Lynn M Kustra

Lynn Kustra

APPENDIX F

Letter of Thank-you to Teachers

University of Alberta
Edmonton
Canada T6G 2H1

Department of Family Studies
Faculty of Home Economics
801 General Services Building, Telephone (403) 432-5771

Dear Teacher,

I wish to thank you for your participation in my research project. Your willingness to complete the questionnaires enabled me to complete the collection of the data which was needed for my project.

The project was designed to explore the relationship between work status, family roles, and certain personality characteristics. I am interested in determining whether differences exist in self-esteem between individuals who teach full-time and those who are either underemployed or unemployed, and if so, whether these differences are influenced by gender and by the presence of the role of parent.

I hope that the results of this project will lead to further investigations of the relationship between work status, family roles, and self-esteem. In addition, it is hoped that more will be learned about the attitudes of people who combine work and family roles.

I hope to have the results of the project available within eight months. If you indicated that you were interested in receiving a copy of the group results, I will be sending a copy of the results to you as soon as possible. If you did not indicate that you were interested in receiving a copy of the results and would now like a copy, I may be reached at 458-6824. If you have any further questions regarding the research project, you may contact me at the above telephone number or you may contact my thesis advisor, Dr. Nancy Hurlbut, at 432-5766 or 432-5771.

Thank you again for your time and assistance.

Yours sincerely,

Lynn Kustra

Lynn Kustra

APPENDIX G

Cell Means and Anova Tables

TABLE G-1

Cell Means Table

Groups: EM (employed married males)
EF (employed married females)
ES (employed single females)
UM (underemployed married males)
UF (underemployed married females)
US (underemployed single females)

Group	Mean	Std. Dev.	N
EM	364.70	35.70	10
EF	366.30	28.80	30
ES	363.14	28.11	7
UM	343.14	36.64	7
UF	354.64	29.14	11
US	348.17	41.73	6
Standard scores (TSCS)	345.57	30.70	

TABLE G-2

ANOVA Summary Tables

A. Work status (employed/underemployed)

B. Gender (male/female)

C. Role (parent role, no parent role)

Two way ANOVA (work status/gender)

Source	SS	Df	MS	F	P
A	2741.838	1	2741.838	2.843	0.098
B	317.663	1	317.663	0.329	0.568
AB	266.635	1	266.635	0.277	0.601
Within	52071.803	54	964.293		

One way ANOVA (role)

Source	SS	Df	MS	F	P
C	4.355	1	4.355	0.004	0.947
Within	55724.628	56	995.083		

TABLE G-3

MANOVA

Variables: Per (personal subscale)
Fam (family subscale)
Soc (social subscale)

Multivariate Tests of Significance

Test	Value	Approx. F	Hypoth. DF	Error	P
Pillais	.10152	1.95860	3.00	52.00	.132
Hotellings	.11300	1.95860	3.00	52.00	.132
Wilks	.89848	1.95860	3.00	52.00	.132
Roys	.10152				

Univariate F-tests with (1, 54) D. F.

Variable	Hypoth. SS	Error SS	F	P
Per	191.18063	2675.76277	3.858	.055
Fam	235.31860	3250.76017	3.909	.053*
Soc	307.97795	3205.23290	5.189	.027*

* Significant at the .05 level

TABLE G-4

ANOVA Summary Table

Two way ANOVA

A. Marital status (single/married)

B. Work status (employed/underemployed)

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
A	193.779	1	193.779	0.211	0.648
B	1794.280	1	1794.280	1.951	0.169
AB	25.297	1	25.297	0.028	0.869
Within	45992.536	50	919.851		